/Salars/

563 794 179 18 Chinese life for a longer period of time; geographical isolation of those in the west; arrival in the west of the "New Sect," among whom are the Salars, dedicated to reform the older residents; and the fact that many in the east are mere converts.

[144] [262] [292] [293] The Moslems in Kansu are further set apart by the physical characteristics of their Tatar ancestry. Also contributing to the general physical condition of the Moslems is their tendency to eat more meat, drink more milk, and indulge less in wine and opium than the Chinese.

563 794 795 The Salars are Moslems of the Shiah division and of the "New Sect." (See chapter about Religion.) The majority of the Moslems in China are of the "Old Sect" and much better assimilated than the "New Sect." The "New Sect" is prevalent mainly in the west of China, and as indicated earlier, their lack of assimilation is due to an obsession to reform the older residents, and is accompanied by extreme fanaticism and intolerance. Amont this "New Sect" the Salars are the most fanatic of all and it may be that they excel in this tendency because of their isolation. Salar stubbornness is further revealed in the practice of the women, who persist in wearing the ancient dress of Samarkand.

563 794 [198] [346] Because the Moslems in China have throughout history persecuted and been persecuted, they display a certain caution in the practice of their religion in areas where they are not abundant. For example the mosques may often be architecturally designed to assume a Chinese style, and if they are in a decided minority the mosques will be constructed without a minaret. In such cases the muezzin will refrain from giving his calls. The isolated Salars, however, are more strict than most Moslems in certain observances. The women, [562] for instance, are still required to wear the veil while absent from their immediate home heighborhood.

563 794 795 Although there have been attempts in the past by the Moslems to set up their own state in North-West China, their internal division over religious questions makes their unification a difficult task because the Chinese leaders take advantage of this weakness and play one faction against another. It also seems to be the opinion that more than a religious basis is necessary in order to establish any sort of political entity. The Moslems are further handicapped in the field of practical political action in the modern world by the fact that it is nearly an impossibility to attain both a Koranic education and a modern education, an inherent requirement for coping with modern conditions in directing the establishment of a bona fide Moslem state. Even if some type of autonomous Moslem government were set up, the isolation, small population, and eccentricity of the Salars probably would

a proponent of the theory of climatic alternations, called the phenomenon "the pulse of Asia."

The most important of the multiple influences is believed to be that of the economic effects of climatic changes. When the climate is warm and moist, the land of the nomads is fertile enough to support the nomads and their herds, but when the climate becomes drier and colder, the rivers and lakes shrink and the pasturage is reduced. This cuts down the food supply and forces the nomads to rampage into the land of their neighbors. Speaking of the thirteenth century, Arnold Toynbee declared that the "paroxysm of aridity coincided in date with the demoniac eruption of the Mongols, and it will be seen that the physiographical recoil towards humidity likewise corresponds in date with the rapid ebb of the Mongols." (A Study of History, vol. III, p. 439).

Although the outbursts and recessions of the nomads were periodic, the rigid periodization was too mechanical and many scholars have discredited climate as the sole factor. Huntington suggests that four factors may have impelled the huge migration of the nomadic peoples, namely: climate, the inherent quality of the people especially as manifested by the leaders, the pull exerted by the wealth and the opportunities of the agricultural lands, and the push exerted by over-population. (Mainsprings of Civilization, p. 568).

A period of peace and prosperity would allow the population of the nomads to increase. However, in the desolate steppes, food was dependent upon flocks of sheep and herds of cattle and horses, and the people, unlike their sedentary neighbors, did not have the tradition nor the facilities for food storage. Any sudden change in climate which caused a reduction of pasturage and water supply would create a 'time of troubles" and compel the nomadic people to migrate in search of food and pasturage.

When the nomads were experiencing a "time of troubles," the lush riches and the military weakness of the settled peoples would tempt border tribes to encroach upon the agrarian regions. Distress and discontent at home and the lure of wealth abroad furnish the push and the pull of Toynbee's theories. When the leavening of bold leadership and ideas were added, the nomads often were induced to burst out from the steppes of Asia and to set the world in commotion.

Other scholars entirely discount the influence of climate and seek the explanation for the advance and withdrawal of the nomads in social and political conditions. Owen Lattimore, who has given much thought to this question, (cf. Inner Asian Frontiers, passim), lists a number of reasons other than climate, for the eruption of the nomads. There were, for example, technological factors like the invention of the powerful compound bow and the technique of mounted archery which gave the nomads an edge over their enemies.

/The Han Chinese/

*563 [195] [651] minority tribes or bandits, and lately there have been skirmishes between the warlords and between the Nationalists and the Communists. These disturbances have not only deprived the people of normal livelihood but also increased their financial burden, as they have been taxed heavily by both the government [731] and the warlords to support the fighting armies. Moreover, the region is susceptible to the disasters of flood and famine. The [167] corruption in officialdom, the banditry, the armies and the disasters have caused people of means to leave the region and make [463] their homes elsewhere. Of course there are officials and rich merchants who have authority in political and economic matters, but it may be said that the majority of those left behind are small business men and poor farmers who stay on their land and struggle for a living.

*563 131 It should be noted that the southeast part of Northwest China is the place where Chinese civilization and culture developed and matured. This region, around the Wei and Lo Rivers, referred to as Kuang-chung, was the most prosperous and well-developed part of China during many of the Imperial dynasties. According to Communist geographical division, Kuang-chung, the area within Shensi Province, is included in the Northwest region. It is a region of fertile soil, where Han Chinese farmers have made their homes for countless generations. The regions to the north and west are populated by the Chinese Moslems, the Mongols and the Tibetans. As this is the case, many Han Chinese [441] [439] who remained in the Northwest became merchants who traveled north to Mongolia and west to Sinkiang with their caravan trade. There are also soldiers and prisoners who had settled here generations ago.

*563 342 Village dwellings are the conventional types of mud huts. Some live in caves, the rich in elaborate caves with fine furnishings, the very poor in caves scooped out of the porous yel- [369] low earth cliffs. In cities and towns where the wealthy merchants dwell, one of course finds the traditional big brick home with several courtyards, as well as modern two-story houses. But in Pao-chi, most of the people live in caves with regular doors and windows, dug out of the cliffs.

*563 262 [556] The eating habits of these people are slightly different from those of the Han Chinese in other parts of China, in that more flour than rice is consumed. Rich people have no difficulty in obtaining all the delicacies they desire. Meat, eggs, fruits, fowl, rice, flour and vegetables are their common fare, but the poor people can afford only barley flour, millet and salted vegetables for their daily diet. Tou-fu, soybean cake, is consumed *563 291 by rich and poor alike. Clothing in this region resembles that worn by Chinese in other parts of the country. Among nomads and the poor, sheepskin coats are very common. They are worn with the fur side inside.

/Chinese Moslems (Dungans)/

000 Northerners are never without it.

S N 563 342 171 2. Patterns of living

. a. Dwellings

Houses of the Chinese Moslems are similar to those of the Han Chinese in style and construction. Externally their mosques resemble Chinese temples. There is always Arabic writing carved in wood above the entrance of the mosque to mark its identity. But in Sinkiang the style of mosque architecture is not Chinese, and the buildings as a rule have minarets.

S N 563 342 35 [349] [531] [212] Village life is very much like that of the Chinese. People live in mud huts with lattice woodwork, windows and simple furnishings. Well-to-do people in cities and towns, where they usually congregate in separate districts, live in Chinese style houses distinguished by the carvings on the windowframes, doorways and woodwork inside, which are of elaborate Arabic design quite different from Chinese wood carving. In both rich and poor homes the ancestral shrines and tablets are missing, and in their places are scrolls with Arabic writings or passages from the Koran. In the northern and western parts of this region the living quarters are simpler. There are colonies of flat-roofed mud houses built along the cliffs.

S N 563 262 184 b. Food

Food habits are similar to those of the Han Chinese, though Moslems do not eat pork and consider it unclean. Meat is a luxury for the poor. Mutton is preferred, though beef is also used. In the western part of the region the very poor use horse meat, though it is forbidden by their religion. Vegetables are a part of their daily diet. In the northwest part of Sinkiang, fruits such as apricots, plums, mulberries, melons and grapes are available, as well as smaller quantities of pomegranates, apples and pears.

S N 563 252 Mutton fat, butter and linseed oil are used for cooking. In eastern Sinkiang the style of cooking is influenced by the Persian, Chinese and Turkish styles. The Chinese Moslems abstain from wine, and are not much addicted to the smoking of opium. They do not like to eat with non-Moslems, especially the Han Chinese, because they consider pork eaters unclean. Strict followers of the religion even avoid eating utensils which have been used by others, and carry their own bread when they travel. No meat may be eaten unless the animal was killed according to prescribed religious ritual.

S N 563 291 The style of dress for both sexes is generally the same as that of the Chinese except for the headdress. The Dungan men can be recognized by their white skullcaps, embroidered with a faint design in colored thread, whereas the usual cap of the Turk or Kazakh is colorful and more richly embroidered. Some Dungans dress in gray and wear white or blue caps. For ceremonial occasions or worship, the Imams, Ahungs and Mullahs, who sit

/Chinese Moslems (Dungans)/

within the railings in the mosque and read the Koran, wear white or green turbans, the leader's turban being more elaborate, with a tassel hanging down the back. Common people wear pointed octagonal caps of white, red or black, the color distinguishing the sect to which they belong.

Some women dress differently from the Chinese women, and wear a sort of turban hat. Ordinarily their dresses are in dark colors, but they may wear gay colors for festivals. According to ancient custom they must veil their faces in the presence of men, but this custom was abandoned long ago.

In cities and towns where the Chinese Moslems dress exactly like the Han Chinese, the men can be distinguished by their physical build and features, but the women are not easily recognized.

d. Occupation

Most Chinese Moslems are business men and traders, and most of them also farm. As farmers they are not equal to the Han Chinese, but they excel in dealing with cattle and everywhere they monopolize the beef and sheep trade. They are also merchants, bakers, workers in jade, money changers, and inn and restaurant keepers.

Outside a Moslem-owned restaurant there hangs a sign displaying a water pot surmounted by a dress hat, and two Chinese characters, Hui-hui. The pot signifies ceremonial cleanliness and guarantees that no pork is used. The hat indicates respect to customers. There are also two Chinese characters on the tea pot, meaning "Pure and True."

Formerly their religion forebade the Moslems to become money-lenders, barbers, fortune-tellers, actors, or servants or apprentices to the Chinese. How strictly the people now observe this taboo is not known.

3. Social values

a. Group spirit

The we-feeling is very strong among the Dungans. The whole group will sacrifice time and money for an individual oppressed by outsiders, and fight for him until justice prevails. Endowed with a courageous nature, the Moslem man is willing to sacrifice his life for the welfare of the group.

This spirit is shown by overt expression in daily social relationships. The Chinese title Lao-piao (old cousin) is applied even to a stranger of the same religious faith. The word old signifies respect; cousin signifies blood relationship. Hence Lao-piao indicates a feeling of closeness toward all members of the faith. Another expression of this feeling is found in the saying that "every Moslem in the world belongs to the same family."

b. Concept of charity

Many of the values in Chinese Moslem society are based upon

/The Tibetans/

*563 [197] race, the Hsi-fans of the country west of T'ao-chao speak the Tibetan language and are as much Tibetans as the inhabitants of any other portion of the Tibetan plateau. They come into contact [177] with the Koko Nor Mongols farther north, whom they bully and plunder. Unlike the Mongols, who are being pushed back every- [648] where along the northern borders of China by Chinese agriculturalists, the Tibetans of the Kansu border hold their own against the Chinese colonists. The northeastern Tibetans are [181] truculent and independent as compared to the Mongols, and they take readily and successfully to farming.

[142] There appear to be two physical types in Tibet, the short, round-faced Mongoloid type, and the tall Aryan type with prominent features. The latter type is common among the Tibetans of [291] Amdo. The eastern Tibetan, even though he is in Chinese dress, [177] may be readily recognized by his peculiar habit of standing with [516] his feet turned out at right angles to his body.

[181] On the whole, these people are hardy, independent, and cautious with strangers, but they are also notably hospitable.

2. Patterns of living

*563 342 a. Dwelling

Like all nomads, the Tibetans have no fixed homes. They live in rectangular tents usually made of yak hair instead of felt, with wooden framework. The bottoms of the tents are made fast with iron pins or animal horns. Mud, stone or dry dung is built up around the tent to keep off wind and snow.

*563 342 352 353 The interior arrangement varies little from tent to tent. A mud stove is in the middle, a Buddha image at the left side. On wooden shelves along the walls are chests and boxes where food and clothing are stored. Skin bags of butter, tsamba or flour, and saddles and rifles also hang along the walls. Shelves on the right side hold pans, water buckets, kettles, bowls, cups, a stone mill and a few skin bags. Near the door there is usually a [237] heap of dried ox dung for fuel. [372]

b. Food

*563 262 [241] [489] Farm products do not grow in the cold climate and high altitude, and transportation is difficult. Thus there is little variety in foodstuffs, and eating and drinking are simple functions. The daily fare is beef, mutton and other domestic meats, fresh and sour milk, butter, cheese, noodles, tsamba (parched barley meal) and tea.

*563 264 There are no regular meal times in most households. In winter when the days are short, they may eat three meals a day; in spring and summer, perhaps four or five. During the day they [262] eat tsamba and sour milk. The evening meal is noodles with boiled beef or mutton, though the poor can have noodles and beef less often.

Rich and poor eat with their hands, though the Tu-kung (chief

*563 264 or leader families) use chopsticks at festivals. Everyone has his own bowl and carries it with him, even when invited to another home for dinner.

*563 574 262 184 556 Ordinary people do not often have guests for dinner, and a feast can be afforded only by the family of a T'u-kung. The formal dinner, which resembles that of the Chinese, is long and ample. When the guests arrive they are served milk-tea, then given chopsticks and a knife. The courses include rice, sweet cake (made of rice flour and dried fruit) sprinkled with sugar and butter, patties made of chopped mutton and intestine. There are small plates of green onions, vinegar and soy sauce for seasoning. The last course is beef soup or mutton with chopped potatoes, rice noodles and vegetables. Sour milk may be substituted for the soup in hot weather.

[252] Among the poor, the main meat dish for entertaining is a sheep's head boiled in salted water.

*563 291 c. Clothing

[556] Tibetans wear the same sheepskin robe the year around. A man's robe ends just above his knees; a woman's reaches the ankles. Wealthy people may have silk or cotton robes lined with sheepskin. The less wealthy may decorate their robes with red or blue cotton trim or leopard-skin collars. The poor dispense with decoration. The robe is often worn with the left arm and shoulder exposed and the sleeve dangling, and in hot weather, the wearer may strip to the waist leaving both sleeves dangling. Women often strip in this manner while they work, and only in cold weather do they keep both arms in their sleeves. As they habitually wipe their hands on their robes, they are as a rule thoroughly dirty.

[556] No one wears stockings. The wealthy have long leather boots trimmed with black, red or green. Most common people go barefooted in summer, and wear sheepskin or felt boots in winter. All wear felt hats or caps in winter.

[793] The dress of the lama differs from that of a commoner. The robe is crimson, reaches to the ankles and has no sleeves. Not even in the coldest weather is the monk permitted to wear sleeves.

*563 302 [184] Most of the men simply shave their heads, but a few leave a round spot of hair on top. Women's hair styles are elaborate. The farther one goes into the nomadic area, the simpler the way of life he finds, and so also the feminine hair styles. Women in Labrang select a small amount of hair on the top of the head to make a braid which hangs down the back. The rest of the hair is made into a number of tiny braids which hang all around. A soft red board reaching to the ankles is attached to the hair, and the whole is heavily ornamented. This is the Tibetan woman's hairdress which is commonly seen.

of the necessary means and the physical possibility of getting to Mecca.

e. The Way of God (Jihad). In addition to the obligations mentioned, in many passages the Koran further enjoins believers to "strive in the Way of God." The duty is formulated in general terms in Sura ii, v. 186., between the regulations of the fast and pilgrimage: "Fight in the Way of God against those who fight against you, but do not commit aggression. . . Slay them wherever you find them, and expel them from whence they have expelled you, for sedition is more grievous than slaying. . . Fight against them until sedition is no more and allegiance is rendered to God alone; but if they make an end, then commit no aggression save against the evil-doers."

A distinction is drawn between warfare against the pagans, on the one hand, and against the Jews and Christians on the other:

"When the sacred months are over, kill those who ascribe partners to God wherever you find them; seize them, encompass them, and ambush them; then if they repent and observe prayer and pay alms, let them go their way." [Sura ix, v. 5]

"Fight against those who believe not in God nor in the last day, who prohibit not what God and His Apostle have prohibited and who refuse allegiance to the True Faith from among those who have received the Book, until they humbly pay tribute out of hand." [Sura ix, v. 29]

"As for those who are slain in the Way of God, they are not dead but living in the presence of their Lord their needs supplied, rejoicing in the bounty which God has given them." [Sura iii, vv. 163-4]

Besides these major issues of doctrine, ritual and obligations, the Koran contains a large body of religious and ethical teachings and legal injunctions. For example, wine, pork, gambling and usury are forbidden along with the making of images or representations and a number of the practices of pagan Arabs. Marriage, dowry, divorce, the guardianship of orphans, and inheritance are all regulated in detail. Penalties are laid down for certain crimes such as stealing, homicide and murder as well as for a few minor offenses. Slavery is accepted as an institution, but certain limitations are placed upon the rights of owners over slaves and good treatment of slaves is enjoined. Fraud, perjury and slander are repeatedly and severely condemned, and rules of social behavior are laid down in several passages. All these and other regulations explicitly detailed in the Koran served as foundations for a more elaborate set of rules and regulations upon which the structure of the Shari'a, the Islamic law, was erected by later generations.

S N 795 785 796 203

/Chinese Moslems/

any should oversleep and fail to eat the necessary food before daybreak.

The regular practice of Zakat is practically unknown to the Chinese Moslem community. Only during the month of Ramadan, when charity is extended to the poor and donations are given to the ahung are alms given in a form resembling Zakat. There is no fixed amount given and the act itself is purely voluntary. The only form of sadaqa (voluntary alms) given is the sadaqa el-fitr given in the three days of Id el Fitr (the Moslem New Year). These offerings can be made in cash or in goods.

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Particularly among the Chinese Moslems of the Northwest the practice of pilgrimage to Mecca was observed. The Hajjis, or those who completed their pilgrimage to Mecca, were highly respected in their communities. Pilgrimage has decreased considerably in the last years. The Hajj organized by the China Islamic Society in 1952 did not reach Mecca; they went as far as Pakistan and returned to Peking, for reasons that were not specified.

S N 795 788

Id el-Fitr, the New Year, is the best observed of the different Moslem holidays. It occurs during the first three days of the tenth month. Special services are held in the different Moslem communities, and great feasts are given to celebrate the occasion.

S N 795 796

In general the Chinese Moslems do abstain from pork and wine as their religion commands. They will not eat meat that has not been killed in the approved Moslem fashion. Many of the merchants, carters and others who travel carry their own utensils, and often, where there are no Moslem communities, carry their own food so as to avoid food that is prohibited by their religion.

S N 795 262

The influence of the general Chinese beliefs on the Moslems has been noted by many, particularly by D'Ollone. Ancestor worship is the core of the non-Moslem Chinese belief. It is not restricted to domestic worship but extends to religious devotion to the graves of the ancestors, which are designed to assure the peace of the deceased and are a scene of devotion every anniversary. The Moslems of the Northwest have been so influenced by these traditions that, in the secrecy of their homes, most of them burn incense in front of the ancestors' tablets. In evidence of this custom, D'Ollone brought back two vases which served the purpose of ancestor worship. Both of these vases belonged to Chinese Moslems, and had Moslem religious inscriptions in Arabic. The practice of pilgrimage to the well kept tombs of the ancestors is also found among the Chinese Moslems of Kansu. Some of the bigger tombs are quite elaborate and include, besides the monuments, a mosque, school halls and lodging places.

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/Turkic Peoples of Sinkiang/

C. Efforts of the Government in the Field of Health and Sanitation

Only a few doctors in Eastern Turkestan have a Western scientific training. Most of them are either Chinese or Europeans (White Russians). Lately, however, young Turkic people possessing a formal education have been sent to Western Turkestan and to China Proper to study in medical colleges. Awareness of the lack of proper medical personnel and equipment in Sinkiang first inspired the Nationalists to try to open clinics and hospitals in Sinkiang. The Communists have followed in their steps with a somewhat more extensive program, according to their reports. Clinics were opened in various parts of the Sinkiang Autonomous Region, with the aim of combating the most common diseases in the area. They have facilities for innoculation against certain diseases, and place particular emphasis on curing and preventing venereal diseases.

In April, 1955, a new medical college was opened in Sinkiang to meet the problem of lack of medical personnel. The Communists announced that "Sinkiang's new medical college...is ready to enroll 250 students of various nationalities for the coming autumn term. A teaching staff of 100 including professors, lecturers and practicing physicians will arrive here in June from other parts of the country to take up their posts. The medical college is part of a scheme for building a medical center in this provincial capital of Sinkiang, where the inhabitants belong mostly to national minorities. The project includes a 600-bed hospital and a clinic able to treat 800 patients daily." (NCNA, Urumchi, April 19, 1955).

III. Health and Sanitation among the Tibetans of Chinghai

A. The Diet of the Tibetan People

Regardless of whether he be rich or poor, farmer or nomad, the diet of the Tibetan consists primarily of four staples, grain (primarily parched and roasted barley), meat, cheese and butter. However, the questions of wealth and mode of life determines the relative proportions of each of the staples. The parched barley, or tsamba is generally added to the buttered tea and the consequent mush is eaten. The sedentary Tibetans resort most frequently to pork or small game animals, such as marmots, for their meat supply. Very few of the farmers can afford beef or mutton as a staple. Yak cheese and the curds of soured yak and sheep milk are favorite items, the latter often counting as a sort of dessert. The nomadic diet uses much less of the grain and is preponderantly meat, including yak-beef and mutton, butter and other dairy products. The Tibetans eat almost every part of the animal except its hooves and hide. The wealthy Tibetans, and the poorer ones

/Tibetans of Chinghai/

*563 •262 on special occasions, enjoy many Chinese dishes, or Tibetan adaptations of them. One of the most popular dishes is a sort of steamed dumpling stuffed with meat. Another is whole mutton, [273] semi-raw or roasted and eaten off the bone. A favorite beverage is a mildly fermented beer of barley or other grain. A more spirituous liquor is also widely appreciated.

Vegetables are scarce and usually are purchased from the Chinese or Chinese Moslems on the Sino-Tibetan border. At that they are limited mostly to potatoes and onions. The nomadic Tibetans have little fondness for green vegetables and accept them to a lesser extent than do the sedentary groups.

*563 164 B. The Predominant Diseases Among the Tibetans

The most common diseases include the venereal diseases, stomach and intestinal disorders, rheumatism, eye and skin diseases and tuberculosis. Perhaps because of the cold climate, the high altitude and the consequent absence of flies, and the use of animal manure instead of night-soil for fertilizing the fields, cholera, typhoid and similar excrement-borne diseases are rare.

The incidence of some diseases seems correlated to whether the people are nomadic or sedentary. For example, Ekvall (1939) reports a higher incidence of syphillis among the agricultural Tibetans, and a somewhat higher gonorrhea rate among the nomads. Leprosy is practically unknown among the nomads but is very common among the farmers. One can infer that rheumatism would be more frequent among the nomads than among the farmers because of the former's greater exposure to chills and dampness. In common with other Tibetans and peoples of the inland areas whose supply of salt is from Tibet's salt lakes, goiters are prevalent. The digestive ailments may be attributed to the frequent inclusion of foreign matter, such as sheep wool or yak hair, in the food, and also to some of the methods used in food preparation. The eye ailments, can be traced in part to the venereal disease rates, in part to the hazards of wind, dust, smoke, and snow-glare on the high plateaus. The skin troubles may be traceable to the customs of rarely washing more than the hands and face, of never completely removing one's clothes, and the numerous population that shares the sheepskin garment with its human host.

Other health hazards among the Tibetans include infections of accidental and non-accidental wounds (many a child has suffered severe burns) incurred in raids. The Tibetans seem to have an extremely low resistance to epidemic diseases such as smallpox, scarlet fever and influenza. Ekvall reports that the Tibetans even [751] suffered violent reactions to vaccination, quite out of proportion to their neighbors, the Chinese and Chinese Moslems. However, this low resistance is accompanied by a high fear of these infec- [758] tions. The tradition of strict quarantine, even to the point of

/Tibetans of Chinghai/

gories and the apportionment of the traditional Buddhist 404 is not standardized.) There are further breakdowns of what might go wrong with what aspects of the human body and the human mind or spirit, to the point where each infinitesimal ailment has its own specific cause and cure, or impossibility of curing. The medicinal treatments involve acupuncture, plasters, herbs, roots, crushed bone, excreta, potions, incantations and numerous other elements. It is a very complex system. When a Tibetan needs medical aid, he must first seek out a lama, present him with a scarf and a gift, and have this lama (who is not a doctor) cast the dice. The dice reveal the portion of the canon that contains reference to the manpa who is needed. The manpa, or specialist, may turn out to be a Christian medical missionary who has been successful in effecting cures (cf. Rijnhart, pp. 163-64). Sometimes there may be some suspicion of fee-splitting. Generally the prescriptions and treatment bear little relation to our own medical knowledge. However, the Tibetans are pragmatists and will seek their cures from those who have established a reputation for success, be they Westerners, Tibetan Buddhist or Bon doctors, or any others. Wherever Western medical science has filtered through, few Tibetans hesitate to make use of it, often simultaneously with their own. Mongol medical science is derived from the Tibetan Buddhist sources. However, more particular Mongol data on health and sanitation can be found in the IMAR Handbook.

III. The Chinese

A. The Diet of the Chinese

The Chinese diet does not contain milk or any milk products. The usual beverage is tea. The principal animals raised for food are pigs, chickens and ducks. In the Northwest, however, mutton has become a very common dish. The Moslems substitute beef for pork. In the Northwest the main grain products are wheat and millet. Rice is also eaten in abundance, being brought generally from southern and central China. Most proteins are derived from soybeans, peanuts and sweet potatoes. The food prepared for special feasts, and the kind eaten by the upper classes, differs considerably from the average Chinese meal, consisting of at least four-fifths meat, fish or fowl. The Chinese method of cooking preserves the vitamins contained in the vegetables, since they are never permitted to linger over the fire or in water.

B. Chinese Concepts of Disease

Most of the people do not know the different values of the various food products. Although many might wish to improve their daily diet with more meats and fish, they cannot afford to do so. The people in general, and particularly in the Northwest, have no

2: Teichman G-5 (1919) 1921 AF13 Northwest China AF13

palatially lodged in the house of a former provincial governor.

There are at least three roads from Hsihsiang to Hanchung, *via* Yang Hsien, Ch'engku Hsien, and Kulupa respectively. We followed the latter, a three days' march. The path runs up the Muma Ho for some 15 li, where the hills close in on the river and bring the valley to an end, and then runs through the hills and along the river to the village of Matsung T'an, 50 li from Hsihsiang and, owing to a small rapid, the head of navigation for small boats on the Muma Ho, up to this point a placid stream. A little further on the trail leaves the main stream, which here flows down from the south, and turns up a small sandy tributary to the south-west, then turns west through low wooded hills intersected by rice fields, and then runs north-west up a small valley to reach the village of Shaho K'an, 25 li from Matsung T'an. This village lies, as its name implies, in a pleasant region of low sandy hills covered with small woods and intersected by rice fields much resembling Szechuan. For some reason or other it is largely a Mahomedan community with two mosques. In the woods one will often see heaps of old timber, carefully stacked, for the growth of a vegetable fungus called *mu erh* (wood ears), which is a much esteemed delicacy and forms quite an important article of commerce in the Han valley.

The next stage is from Shaho K'an to Kulupa, a distance of 70 li. The path runs up the narrow valley of the stream, occasionally cutting across the low wooded hills, for 30 li to the village of Sunchia P'ing, where the hills open out and encircle a little rice plain. The district of Ch'engku is here entered. The country is a maze of little wooded hills intersected by gullies growing rice, and its chief feature is the sand. The hills are of soft disintegrating sandstone, the stream is a trickle of water in a sandy bed, and the path a firm sand embankment between stream and rice fields. It is evidently an old sandstone plateau cut up into hills and gullies by the action of water, like so much of Szechuan. North of the Ch'inling Shan such a country would be a desert; here with the more abundant rainfall and its resultant vegetation, it is a garden. From Sunchia P'ing the trail continues westwards for a time up the stream, and then, as

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361 Fop'ing, formerly a T'ing and now a third class Hsien, is a tiny place, a mere walled hamlet, containing only twenty or thirty families, and is probably about the smallest and most miserable of all the Hsien cities in China Proper. It lies in a cultivated valley, on the headwaters of a stream which apparently flows west and then south to join the Han near Ch'engku. This valley, over 6000 feet above sea level, is a quarter to half a mile wide, and surrounded on all sides by [241] lofty mountains; it produces wheat, barley, maize, beans, peas, and potatoes, the latter being a most important crop [242] in these mountains and in many parts the staple food of the people. The wheat was just showing above ground in the middle of May when it is ripe for harvest in the Hanchung plain. This valley appears to be the best and most populous part of the district which is entirely covered by high ranges, including T'aipai Shan in the N.W. corner. The post of magistrate is naturally not sought after. The Chinese consider Fop'ing a "dreadfully bitter" place (*k'u ti hen*), since there is no rice nor pork, nor other desirable food supplies; but to the foreigner the abundance of game, bracing healthy climate, and magnificent mountain scenery combine to make it a delightful spot. When the railway reaches Hanchung a month in Fop'ing in the autumn with dog and gun will form a pleasant way of spending a holiday.

136 We stayed a couple of days at Fop'ing, during which it rained in the valley and snowed on T'aipai and the higher ranges. The cultivated fields round the city and the brush-covered hills to the south abound in pheasants, and I shot a good many cocks, which in spite of the season were excellent eating and a welcome addition to our food supplies. I have shot a great many cock pheasants in the highlands of Shensi and Kansu in the summer for food, as the parts where supplies are scarce and pheasants abundant always seem to coincide. The game-exporting companies have not yet extended their activities to these parts, which provide probably the best wild pheasant shooting in the world. The pheasants usually met with are the usual Mongolian ring-necked species, with the white ring growing less and less as one goes west till it dies out altogether in the mountains of the Kokonor border. These birds literally swarm in the corn fields in many of the cultivated valleys in the mountains

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of the North West and must consume a great deal of grain. Strangely enough the Chinese peasants, often poor to the verge of starvation, seldom touch them, partly because of the cost of powder and shot, and partly perhaps because of the curious prejudice the Chinese cultivator has to eating anything wild, for fear lest it should make him "wild in the heart." The ordinary Chinese appear much to prefer a skinny old chicken to a nice plump pheasant because the former is not wild. While we were routing out pheasants on these hills we put up four deer, apparently a large kind of roe, which showed very little alarm and kept on re-appearing at intervals for the rest of the afternoon.

The T'ing, usually translated "sub-prefecture" and now abolished, appears formerly to have been always the centre of a sort of military district located in mountainous country for the purpose of holding aboriginal tribesmen of some kind in check. Thus one will find many T'ing on the western confines of Yunnan, Szechuan, and Kansu facing the Tibetans; in the Miaotzu country of Kueichou and adjacent provinces; on the borders of Lololand in Szechuan; on the Burma-Yunnan frontier; and in Northern Shensi on the Mongolian border; but not in provinces like Anhui, Kiangsu, Shantung, etc., which have never contained a non-Chinese population. There are quite a number of T'ing in the Nan Shan of Shensi. But every vestige of an aboriginal non-Chinese population seems to have disappeared, if it ever existed. I have a vague recollection that some European scholar has evolved a theory that the non-Chinese tribes now living in Southern China originated in the mountains of Southern Shensi. Incidentally it may be noted that the former T'ing are usually marked in foreign maps of China as more important places than the Hsien. But with the exception of a few larger places such as Tachienlu and T'engyueh, nine out of ten of the T'ing are miserable little walled villages in the mountains, nowadays ranking as the poorest of third class Hsien.

Leaving Fop'ing the track climbs up the range immediately to the north by zigzags to reach the pass about a thousand feet above the valley, whence there is a fine view over a wilderness of mountains all around. To the N. and N.W. lies T'aipai Shan, a bare rocky ridge still carrying a good deal of snow in May. This pass (about 7000 feet) is

1 [pheasants - ANALYST]

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road, here a good cart track, runs across an undulating wheat prairie, dotted with hamlets and walled farms, with the Wei River out of sight on the right hand, and the great barrier of the Ch'inling mountains on the left. Three townships are passed, Yapei, Hengch'u, and Huaiya, the second being of some interest as the home of a famous Sung Dynasty philosopher. The amount of wheat grown on these plains of Central Shensi is very great, especially nowadays since the suppression of opium cultivation. There is no better wheat flour in China than that of Shensi, and it forms the staple food of the population, eaten in the form of bread (*mo*) and macaroni (*kua mien*). With this excellent wheat flour, good mutton, and plenty of game in the mountains, the foreign traveller is well off as regards food. A sound rule for travel in the interior of China is to avoid all tinned foods and rely on native supplies cooked in foreign style; the former only increase one's baggage loads and are quite unnecessary; native food made up in the native style is unappetising to most foreigners as well as being dangerously dirty.

Mei Hsien, a second class district city, is a small place, but like Chouchih is the centre of a rich agricultural region comprising the plain between the Ch'inling Shan and the River Wei. The latter flows a few li to the north of the town. The city has suffered greatly from rebellions and brigandage during recent years.

From Mei Hsien to Fenghsiang Fu is called 110 li, but the road being good and mostly level, the distance can be covered in one long march. The Wei River, in the dry season a thick yellow stream a hundred yards wide and few feet deep, is crossed by a ferry and the road then runs westwards with the river on the left hand and a loess bluff on the right for 35 li to the village of Ts'aichia P'o. At the time of our visit this low-lying land was almost entirely devoted to indigo and dotted with the peculiar-looking brick pits in which the plants are mashed in preparing the dye. This is an old industry revived on account of the scarcity of aniline dyes. The indigo forms a useful rotation crop for the relief of the land exhausted by the everlasting wheat. We saw little else but wheat, cotton, and indigo during our tour of the loess of Central Shensi, growing on

T. T. the uplands, river plains, and irrigated lands respectively.

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the North West after Hsian Fu, and all the trade there is in the province converges upon it. Traders from Tientsin, Szechuan, Turkestan, Mongolia, Siberia, Tibet, and even India may be met with in its streets.

Kansu is considered by the Chinese of other provinces to be a dreadfully bitter place (*k'u ti hen*), nothing but wild Mahomedans and no rice to speak of; but for a European it is in many ways the pick of the eighteen provinces. Lanchou lies a little under 5000 feet above sea-level, which in that latitude means a white man's climate, no mosquitoes, and the wearing of European clothing all the year round. As regards food, excellent wheat flour, mutton, and milk are always obtainable, the two latter often scarce in other parts of China, and game is extraordinarily abundant in many regions. I have only one complaint to make against Kansu and that is the brackish water in certain parts. At Lanchou itself there are springs of sweet water at Wuch'uan Shan, a collection of temples on the hills immediately to the south of the city, and the Yellow River water is also good after it has been allowed to stand and clear itself.

Lanchou being situated near some of the best sheeps-wool producing regions of Asia, and the climate being essentially a northern one, common sense indicates it as a suitable centre for a cloth-making industry. This was recognized as long ago as the days of the great General Tso, who established a cloth factory, which was subsequently modernised during the comparatively progressive and constructive era preceding the Revolution by the introduction of modern foreign machinery and several Belgian instructors. But the Revolution put an end to progress in this enterprise as in so many others, and the foreigners have now all departed, and the factory does not flourish. All the same, on my departure from Lanchou, the Governor insisted on my taking away, as mementoes of progress in Kansu, two locally manufactured blankets, made, I think, of camels' hair, which were really first-class articles, and hard to beat anywhere for warmth and good wearing utility. There ought to be a large market for native-made cloth amongst the Kokonor Tibetans and beyond, but the trade seems never to have been developed successfully. There are also other so-called factories, for the manufacture of matches, soap, etc.,

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due south for 15 li and then branches off up a side ravine to the S.W., another road continuing south up the main valley towards Hui Hsien. After an hour or two's march up this ravine the trail ascends a low pass, crosses a small valley, and immediately rises again to cross another low pass, whence it descends to the village of Kaomo Chen in the valley of a streamlet flowing from west to east. We were delayed in Kaomo Chen for half a day by our mule train following the wrong path, and its poverty was evidenced by the fact that we could get nothing but unleavened cakes of maize to eat, the most unpalatable form of nourishment I have ever had to put up with in China, though very often the only food of the people in mountainous country. From here the trail ascends by easy gradients to a pass in the Yangtzu-Yellow River divide, a climb of less than an hour over grassy slopes devoid of trees, and then descends steeply to a valley running south-west. The track follows down this stream for 20 li to the village of Lochia P'u, where it debouches into a broad and fertile valley, bounded by low cultivated hills of loess, the stream flowing from east to west. This stream is one of the headwaters of the Chialing Chiang, which flows through Szechuan to Chungking, and it is remarkable to find so much loess south of the divide. The latter formation may also be seen on the headwaters of the Shensi branch of the Chialing Chiang round Feng Hsien on the Hsian Chengtu road.

From Lochia P'u there is a remarkably good road down the open loess valley for two hours' march to the walled village of Yen Kuan, where there are said to be salt wells. The magistrate of Hsiho Hsien met us here, as we had entered his district; he said that a road branches off at this point to Hsiho and Chieh Chou and so to Szechuan. From Yen Kuan the road continues down the valley until within 20 li of Li Hsien, where it crosses a spur to avoid some gorges, and the loess formation comes to an end. Li Hsien is a picturesque little city lying hidden away on the southern slopes of the Ch'inling Shan in a country of narrow fertile valleys, whose streams all go to form the headwaters of the Kansu branch of the Chialing Chiang. From here to Min Chou our route followed an unfrequented trail which penetrated the Ch'inling Shan in the most curious way,

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European scholars have maintained that the Hsifan are not Tibetans and suggested that they represent a northern branch of one of the non-Chinese races of S.W. China, like the Lolos or Mosos. Granting that there is no such thing as a homogeneous Tibetan race, the Hsifan of the country west of T'ao Chou speak the Tibetan language and are as much Tibetans as the inhabitants of any other portion of the Tibetan plateau. A little further north they come into contact with the Kokonor Mongols, whom they bully and plunder. Unlike the Mongols, who are everywhere being pushed back by the encroaching Chinese agriculturist along the northern borders of Shansi and Chihli, the Tibetans of the Kansu border hold their own against the Chinese colonist; partly perhaps because the country is too elevated to suit the latter, but also because the N. Eastern Tibetan is truculent and independent compared to the Mongol and further takes readily and successfully to agriculture. Their food is the buttered tea and tsamba (parched barley meal) of the Tibetans everywhere. Tsamba is a palatable food for people fond of porridge, and the buttered tea is not at all bad when regarded as gruel or soup instead of tea; it is for this reason that the bitter teas of India are unsuited to the Tibetans. It is often said that the Chinese sell the merest refuse of their tea bushes to the Tibetans; but it happens to be what the latter want to make their gruel with. There is little or no resemblance between the tea drunk by the Tibetans and that consumed in Europe.

There appear to be two racial types in Tibet, the short round-faced Mongoloid type, and the tall prominent-featured Aryan type; the latter is common among the Tibetans of Amdo as amongst those of Kham. A peculiar feature of the eastern Tibetan, by which he could in nine cases out of ten be recognised in Chinese or foreign dress, is his habit of standing with his feet turned out at right angles to his body.

From Heitso Ssu the trail runs north over low grass-covered hills for a few li and then descends through a rocky gorge to a small monastery called K'achia Ssu (all our names are Chinese) lying in a narrow wooded valley trending N.W. In this neighbourhood there grows a plant poisonous to ponies and mules. From here the track runs down the

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a carillon of nine bells, hanging over the shrine. Simultaneously one catches the monotonous tone of a hollow, wooden drum, shaped like a crab, the beating of which declares, in triple rhythm, that the ultimate issue of earth, matter, and even life itself, is VOID. 788

'Earth is void! All is void! I am void!' This is the message of the drum to every human heart in that city of unnumbered gods.

The most rigorous asceticism rules the lives of many Kanchow women. Not content with being under a vegetarian vow, as is usually understood, they so fear any subtle indulgence of the appetite, that even onions, garlic, vinegar and red pepper, the necessary condiments to flavour the insipid dough-string diet, are eschewed. During the spring months almost each day sees the recurrence of some festival, which draws the crowds alternately to each temple in the neighbourhood. Theatrical troops move from fair to fair, repeating their performances to the never-failing concourse of village people, whose bullock-carts are parked in a wide semicircle facing the stage, and in which the women sit the whole day long exposed to the heat of the sun. Most of the younger women and girls adorn themselves for the occasion with paint and powder, until the face is converted into an expressionless mask. Their hair is beautifully dressed and decorated with artificial flowers. Most of the small children are stamped on the forehead, nose, and chin with minute geometrical patterns, traced in red circles. 262 785 796 [536] 796 302

Just out of earshot of the stage, the food-vendors pitch their stalls, where cooked eatables of all descriptions are on sale. Pork fried and stewed in a thick gravy, is served up in small saucers and eaten with chopsticks, as also fried meat-dumplings, garnished with vinegar and red pepper. A large mould of 796 265

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000 we began to view the incoming winter, under present conditions, with a certain amount of anxiety. Seeing therefore that our life must necessarily be somewhat rigorous, we added a layer of camel's hair to our already wadded Chinese garments, and thus equipped we were subsequently enabled to meet temperatures registering fifteen degrees Fahrenheit below zero.

•962 During this first winter we were fortunate in securing from a Moslem farmer excellent milk, but food supplies in these localities are very variable, not only from city to city, but from year to year ; and after a few months, cattle disease carried off most of the cows, so our dairy supply failed completely. Mutton, yak beef and pork could be bought, but all were of a poor quality. Vegetables, however, were excellent and eggs plentiful. Our daily dinner was a Chinese meal of rice or macaroni, but for several months of each year no fat of any kind was obtainable for cooking purposes, with the exception of linseed-oil, which is commonly used by Kansu people ; unfortunately, in spite of every effort, we were never able to accustom ourselves to the strong taste, nor eat it without revulsion. Our winter preparations also included a large quantity of wheat, which we ourselves ground as needed, and which gave us a good store of bran with which to fill large baskets of eggs, this being the only way to prevent their freezing.

133 Our first expedition was taken before the winter
712 closed in, when travelling would be too hard. It took the form of a trip to the fortress of Kiayükwan, which was only twenty miles distant. The road was over a barren and stony waste, leading slightly uphill, so that the journey took six and a half hours to perform. It was a dismal landscape, though the Richthofen Range looked magnificent with snow to its very base, and we also crossed a good many beautifully clear streams on

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we strolled between the flower-beds listening to singing birds, which, alas! were in cages concealed among the branches of the trees. The arrangement of the garden was highly skilful and artificial. In one place a miniature mountain showed tiny paths connecting shrines and temples, all built to scale, while the whole was watered by the ramifications of a sparkling little stream, on the banks of which stood diminutive men, women and children—the whole happy-family scene conveying the impression of a life spent in Elysian fields, which no disturbing element could touch. A good deal of the verdure in the flower-beds was supplied by asparagus plants, known to the Chinese as 'Dragon's Beard,' which seems to be indigenous to Kansu, but which, strange to say, the people do not care to eat. Many are the bitter weeds, leaves and buds which the Chinese cleverly convert into palatable food, but the delights of asparagus have not yet been discovered by them, and it is distressing to a Westerner to see the shoots allowed to go to leaf without ever being cut.

The meal served to us was of the usual kind, commencing with dessert and *hors d'œuvres*, and proceeding to chicken, fish, birds' nest soup, and sweet rice; then reverting to sharks' fins, seaweed, and apricot-kernel syrup; ending with plain boiled rice, rolls, and several basins of vegetable soups with meat balls, while on this occasion a seasonable dainty was provided in the shape of light fritters, made from the petals of the tree-peony. As we were by now on a footing of intimate friendship with these ladies, the social intercourse and delightful food thus prepared for us made a pleasant interlude coming between the exacting claims of the last days.

Late one evening a Suchow man of our acquaintance, Mr. Li by name, called, bringing with him a gentleman

361 On the loess was tall, thick grass. But there was no running water anywhere. A few Tibetan tent communities lay scattered in between the loess deposits, taking advantage of the frequent spring snows.
T 262 C 262 They belonged to the Gomi Tibetans. On the day before our arrival one of their yak had slipped on a steep slope in grazing and had fallen into the abyss and broken its neck. The owners were poor people and hard hit by the loss of the animal. But the Tibetans never use the meat of animals killed by an accident. They say that it pleased God to kill the animal, therefore it is not right for man to use the meat. My Mohammedans, too, would have nothing to do with the meat, for it was not kosher. The Chinese, on the other hand, laughed at the silly Tibetans, fetched half the ox from down in the hole and cooked and fried the meat all night long and the next day the donkeys of the soldiers had an added heavy burden to carry. In spite of their poverty, the Tibetans did not even take the skin off the animal, but let the soldiers have even that, although the yak skin was worth a seventh of the entire value of the animal.

T 233 On April 26 we first retraced our steps and then went south of the Bayan Nor to the west. The lake is very appropriately given the Mongolian epithet bayan, meaning the "rich one." There is an abundance of grass here and thousands of sheep and cattle grazed in the /292/ vicinity of it. These pastures once belonged to one of the squadrons of the Khoit Mongols and today to the Tschamri Tibetans who have their own chieftain and are quite independent of other
T 792 tribes. They have 340-350 tents. Farther west in a valley of the South Koko Nor Mountains they own a monastery. Besides the Buddha images, the spirit of the Amne Sertschen, the mountain peak that rose before me on the morning after the attack, is worshipped here.
C 631 The monastery belongs to the Gelugba. Wherever the Mongols used to be the rulers, the "yellow ones" are today the undisputed saviors. For it is the Koko Nor Mongols who are responsible for present-day significance of the Gelugba sect and the Dalai Lama. But there are only miserable remnants left of the once powerful patrons; only a great many place names and names of mountains were left over from the Mongolian period and adopted into Tibetan. The Mongols once lorded it here as did the Germans knights in Courland and Esthonia; for several hundreds of years the Tibetans were bondsmen to them. The Mongols were the civilizers here. Under their rule there was more order; they lived in the land and had an interest in it. Now conditions are intolerable. Chinese politics in Tibet are based on the

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Kalmyk

278 fourteen taels were paid in 1894 for 100 catties. At the beginning
437 of this century the price in Dankar dropped to 8 to 9 taels. The rhubarb from Kue de brings 1 to 2 taels less because its rhizomes are blacker and are therefore considered less efficacious.

824 The Mongols and Tibetans use this rhubarb only for dyes, not for
386 medicinal purposes. On the other hand, they use the stems of
262 another kind which the Mohammedans call sche hoang, that is, stone-rhubarb, with leaves that are only slightly slit, as a vegetable.

On July 10 I left the Schang yurts. I had set Barun-Tsaidam as
000 my next goal, in order to supplement my supply of flour, which I had not succeeded in doing in Schang. In Barun there is supposed to be more barley than in Schang.

We had some difficulty in getting started. The small animals had not got used to each other. The 37 head which I bought always tried to stray apart and head for any larger herd. It was a mystery to me how my men with unfailing accuracy always extricated my animals from a flock of many hundreds of sheep and goats. But the Chinese are good at things like that. It always amuses me to recall an example illustrative of this distinguishing trait. It happened at an inn in the lowlands. A guest and, of course, a grass widower had just returned home from market carrying his supper consisting of meat, eggs and flour, and the necessary fuel for it under his arm. He threw the bundle of twigs down in front of the door of his room. While he was in the room in order to fetch his cooking pot and pan, a policeman who was keeping the all-too troublesome gapers away from me, hoping to earn a good tip, got himself a stick from the bundle of faggots of my neighbor and paraded up and down with it at some distance in front of the gate of the inn. The grass widower returned. He took up his bundle and immediately discovered the damage. A mere glance, and he recognized his property in the hands of the policeman. Now, there was a second policeman with a similar stick in his hand, standing at the gate, but the injured man had immediately picked out the right one and also got back what belonged to him. The lies and excuses of the policeman were powerless against his plausible arguments. He was able to give a minute description of his firewood.

We traveled over low hills and a small saddle: at the end of our
133 day's march we crossed over the Yogh'ore gol, the outlet of the Tossun Nor and the Alang Nor. The Yogh'ore Valley is wide and flat-bottomed, the river is /344/ divided into several branches and was now, at the time of the monsoon rains, rather deep. I had